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ABSTRACT

This issue of a journal devoted primarily to teaching English as a second language to engineering students contains the following articles: (1) "The Contribution of Educational Technology to ELT [English Language Teaching]" by Mike Laflin; (2) "Looking Again at Student-Centred Study Skills" by Andrew E. Seymour; (3) "Troublesome English I" by Victor W. Mason; (4) "ESP for the Machine-Shop" by Tim Hayward; (5) "EST TTI [Teacher Training Institute] Corvallis 1979" by Jonathan Elliman; (6) "The English Language Placement Test and the Oral Ability of ELU Arts Students" by Steven Spurling, Edward Richards, Geoffrey McGraw, and Ralph Setian; (7) "Scoring Reliability: Writing Test, Engineering Placement Test" by Donald J. Malcolm; and (8) a review of Swoles and Fannings "English in the Medical Laboratory" by Diana E. Adams Smith. (JB)

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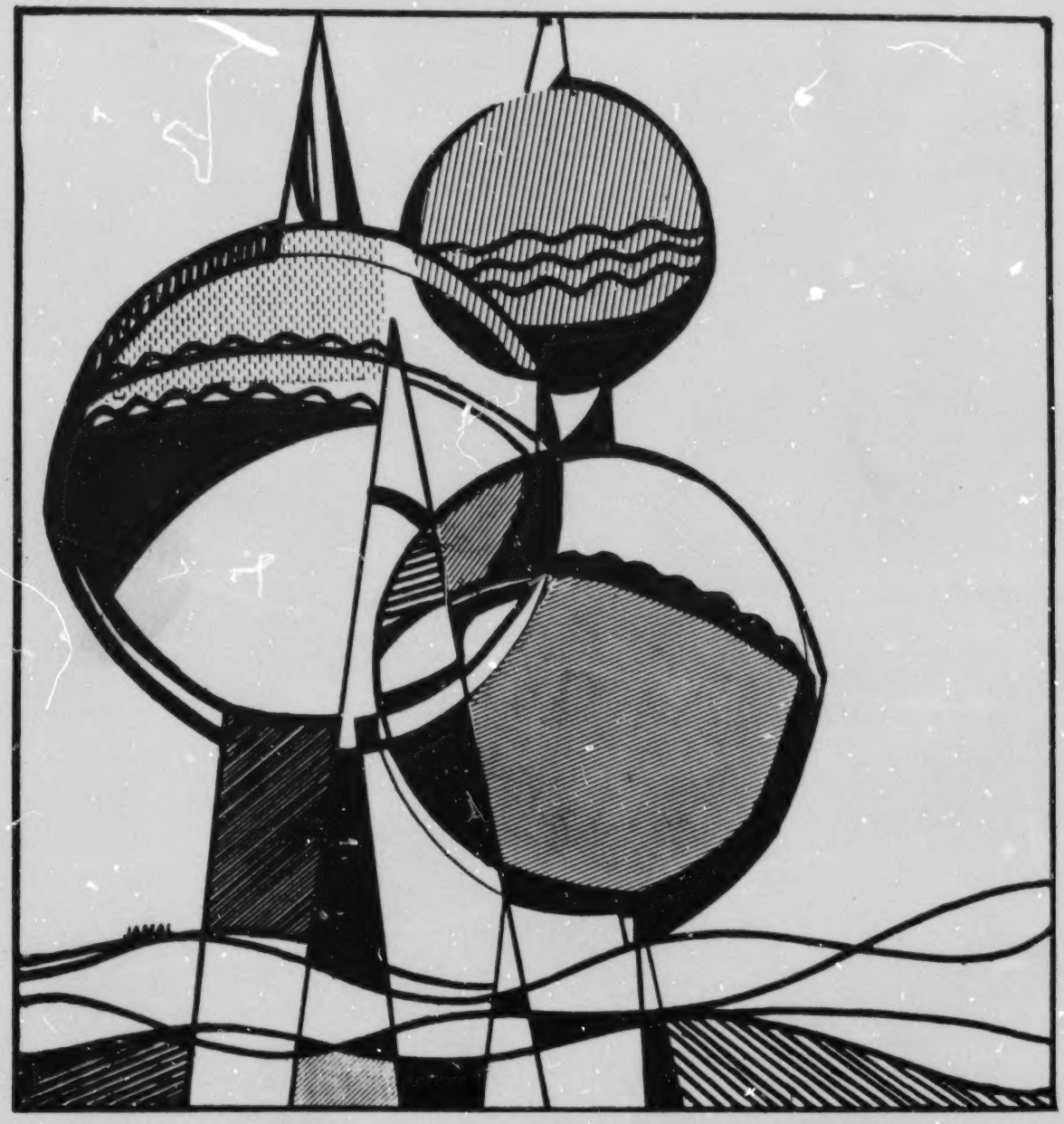

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THE CONTRIBUTION OF EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY TO ELT

by Mike Laflin
A.V.A Supervisor

I want to try to demonstrate that educational technology or instructional media is concerned with more than tapes and print materials; it embraces a whole methodology and philosophy of teaching.

Educational technology cannot isolate itself and say: "We are only concerned with the production of materials".

It should also be concerned with course design and utilization and work with course writers at the earliest levels. It requires, in the present context, a knowledge of teaching methods, language teaching theory, instructional media, the creative design of materials, and production procedures.

It is no coincidence that most educational media producers have teaching experience, nor that practising teachers are interested in instructional media design. The two are complementary.

If there is a different emphasis on the part of the course writer and educational technologist, it lies in the writer giving greater consideration to "What do we include?" and the educational technologist to "how do we communicate?" But generally, each party finds it easy to accomodate the other.

The kind of factors occupying the educational technologist are:

1) clarity in explanation of the language point.
2) obtaining maximum possible activity on the part of every student.
3) teacher involvement at an individual rather than whole class level.
4) opportunity to test the learning success of every student.
5) opportunity to provide remedial teaching in the event of failure of the student to learn.

EDITORIAL

A recurrent theme in past editorials of Al-Manakh has been the anticipated expansion of the undergraduate English programme in Science. It has now finally been decided that ELU Science will begin a 15 hours a week programme in September 1980, - a recognition that 5 contact hours a week is not sufficient in an English medium faculty. The English language programme in the Graduate School got under way this semester in Science with two study-skills courses: a report on these courses is anticipated in the next issue of Al-Manakh.

**** **** **** ****

The Language Centre continues to expand in other faculties too. An ELU Law has been established, and the French Language Unit has begun a programme in the Faculty of Commerce. The College of Arts and Education will, in September, become two separate Colleges, thus necessitating the creation of an ELU Education, whose Supervisor has already been named. ELUs Arts and Education will also benefit from an increase in weekly contact hours, from 3 to 5, with the hopes that the objectives of English Language Teaching in Arabic-medium colleges become clearer, and that the increase in contact hours will raise the level of achievement from what the Supervisor of ELU Arts termed, in a recently circulated report, "a maintenance program".

**** **** **** ****

A report on the attendance by a member of staff at the 1979 EST TTI at Corvallis appears in this issue. The professional expertise gained by such attendances will undoubtedly benefit the teaching staff as a whole, and we hope that the Research and Conference Committee will continue to support individuals whose work improves the status of the Language Centre.

**** **** **** ****

Finally, Al-Manakh would like to welcome the new Director of the Language Centre, Dr. Rasha Al-Sabah, and the Assistant Director for Curriculum and Development, Dr. Najat Al-Mutawa, and we wish them every success in the continuing development of the Language Centre.

E. Richards
Editor.

or twelve students at one time. But, if the course consists of the same meaningless drills criticized above, it will fail for the same reason. I heard recently of a course based on only 20 nouns. The students could use those 20 nouns, linguistically speaking, as acrobatically as Olga Korbut on the parallel bars; as meaningful language it was rather less than athletic.

The success of a student last year in doing a communication project in ELU Engineering on the design of a flyover on the 4th Ring Road stood in sharp contrast to his general course work; this should have surprised no one. It is a tangible appreciation of a marvellous teaching idea which meant something to the student concerned. It fulfilled the basic precepts of course design: it was geared to his needs, it was meaningful to him, it was pupil-centred and involved him actively, and it required task-oriented and communicative skills.

The videotapes, slides, print materials etc. are the glossy eyecatching side of the educational technologist's job. Unless the courses make proper use of them, such aids are little more than tinsel or entertainment.*

It is also in his province to plunder and adapt whatever materials and courses are available. Generally, it is inadvisable to attempt to incorporate whole sections of commercially produced courses to create an amalgamated course. Such a collage tends to disregard the logic of complete courses, incorporates a variety of styles and approaches, and results in a hotchpotch of disparate elements.

The linguist and language teacher (if there is any distinction to be made) will have his own (eminently justifiable) views on the course content and organization and teaching methods of commercial language teaching materials.

---

*The proper conditions for utilization (ie equipment, maintenance, classrooms, teacher familiarity with materials & equipment) are equally essential, but their consideration is outside the scope of this article.

Fundamental to his approach is learning through activity and experience; so that in course design he will ask questions like:

1) What proportion of this lesson dictates teacher activity and student passivity?
2) How much pupil activity involves all pupils, rather than one or two with the rest observing?
3) How much individual pupil activity involves creative, communicative, or task-oriented thinking as opposed to filling in blanks, repeating structures or transformation drills?
4) How far are the learning tests related to meaningful or useful situations?
5) How far is the content geared to the needs of the pupils?

It might be useful at this point to describe the kind of approach I have in mind.

In "Al-Manakh" Vol.2, No.2, Bill Starkey described an approach to note-taking from films, based on his experience in Engineering.Here the task was directly related to the students' needs, there was a genuine communicative task involved, there was maximum pupil activity, and the context of the task was meaningful rather than contrived.

In a unit of the Commerce 099 course, there is a quiz which asks the students to deduce the names and occupations of three men from the limited information given. This illustrates the technique of testing the student's language learning success through completing a task, since an understanding of the language is implicit in answering the question correctly.

Conversely, the ability to complete a series of transformation drills demonstrates only that ability, and may have nothing whatever to do with the ability to use those structures in real situations. This has particular relevance to the use of the language laboratory. From the point of view of student activity, the educational technologist and language teacher alike must welcome the language laboratory as a means of having a dozen students all working individually at the same time, rather than chorically repeating a structure or sitting passively for long stretches of time. The teacher can give individual tuition to students, although it is doubtful whether a teacher can adequately monitor and teach more than ten

These considerations are crucial to the educational technologist's approach:

1) The production of a commercial course must seek the lowest common demoninator in order to sell. Its content will tend to be bland, and it must take account of poorly-equipped, poorly-staffed institutions as well as the reverse. By their nature, the former are less likely to have the resources and will to develop their own materials, and will provide the bulk of the market. Such a course will generally comprise largely printed materials and easily-organized mechanical drills.

2) The production of a worldwide course cannot take account of cultural and interest level differences, nor of language problems specific to a particular group, especially with regard to spoken language.

3) Not causing cultural offence is the negative view of course content. The positive side, which many teachers consider to be important, is that language teaching cannot operate in a vacuum, and should concern itself with wider educative goals than language teaching alone. Such goals will vary enormously, even in adjacent countries.
These three points argue, in my view, for a specialist approach to course design and production.

In conclusion, the educational technologist's view of course design does not assume that every lesson must be a bundle of fun. It searches for the most effective method of teaching a particular structure or skill and brings a variety of machines and software into the teacher's range of choices. It believes that pupil activity is axiomatic to the learning process, and that the teaching resources now available release the teacher to give individual attention to pupils in a way that was formerly more difficult. The teacher can now devote more time to teaching and contact as opposed to disseminating information.

Above all, through permitting individual teaching to a greater extent than before, it increases the teacher's opportunity to be an individual himself.

LOOKING AGAIN AT STUDENT-CENTRED STUDY SKILLS

by Andrew E. Seymour

MSSD, Faculty of Medicine

In an article entitled Student-Centred Study Skills in Al-Manakh[1] eighteen months ago, Patrick Sherwood described one aspect of our work in the English and Medical Study Skills Division of the Faculty of Medicine. He wrote:

> "The study skills units that we have developed are student-centred; that is to say, they are designed to enable the students to teach each other. We believe that using such self-directed units, the students learn more than if the teacher takes the central, dominant role."

Since that was written we have altered the emphasis in our teaching of study skills and what we are now teaching is more "student-centred" than before, yet there is now a more active role played by the teacher.

I am involved in the re-designing of the syllabus for our third semester course. This course is taught in the classes of which Patrick Sherwood wrote "they almost run themselves". At that time, the needs of the students at this stage of their studies had been determined and analysed, and some objectives for the course had been established. For example, it was clear that the students needed to be able to take well-organised notes from written and oral sources and to use those notes as a basis for written essays and oral reports and discussions. However, it seemed to me that there was a gap between this prior analysis of the students' needs and the actual content of the syllabus. The students were practising note-taking from different sources and were attempting to write essays and give oral reports, but we were not teaching the skills which are necessary for the achievement of the objectives we had established.

The first reason for the gap between the students' needs and the content of the syllabus was the impreciseness of the objectives we had set. Throughout the 1970's there has been a great emphasis in language teaching on designing the syllabus in accordance with the needs of the learners. The first major

principle is that objectives must be clearly defined. This is how D.A. Wilkins states the principle:

> "The basis of a sound approach to language teaching is to know what the objectives of teaching are. There are no immutable and ideal objectives in language teaching. Objectives are set in relation to the particular teaching situation with which the teacher is faced. This means that, as far as circumstances allow, it is necessary to predict what kinds of language skill will be of greatest value to the learners."[2]

Two years ago, when our third semester course was first taught, it was not possible to be very precise about our objectives because in a completely new faculty there are a host of unknown factors. Since then, we have been able to find out far more about the needs of our students so that now we can be far more precise about our objectives in teaching the course.

The second reason for the gap between the students' needs and the content of the syllabus was that we had passed straight from analysing the needs of the students to teaching, without first interpreting the objectives we had established in terms of the language skills required if those objectives were to be achieved. As John Munby has pointed out, what is necessary is a system which enables us to work out the derivational relationship of syllabus specification to the communication needs of the learners.[3] In our case, the objectives had not been adequately converted into syllabus content because we had not first listed the necessary language skills. Consequently, some of these skills were not taught, and the course became "student-centred" in the sense that the students were told what they needed to learn and were given practice while the teacher played a passive role, monitoring their progress. The course needed to be made "student-centred" in the sense that the teachers teach skills which are directly related to the needs of the students.

In deciding what skills were required for the realisation of the objectives that had already been set for the course I relied heavily on John Munby's taxonomy of language skills.[4] This is the only such taxonomy that I have been able to find and it is arranged in such a way as to

facilitate the process of selecting skills appropriate to previously specified activities. The following skills were selected as being necessary for the realisation of our objectives in the third semester:

1. Recognising indicators in written and spoken English (articles, books, lectures, films) for

1.1 introducing an idea

1.2 developing an idea (eg. adding points, reinforcing argument)

1.3 transition to another idea

1.4 concluding an idea

1.5 emphasising a point

1.6 explanation or clarification of a point already made

1.7 anticipating an objection or contrary view

2. Distinguishing the main idea from supporting details in written and spoken English (articles, books, lectures, films) by differentiating

2.1 primary from secondary significance

2.2 statement from example

2.3 fact from opinion

3. Reducing the text through rejecting redundant or irrelevant information and items, especially

3.1 omission of closed-system items (eg. determiners)

3.2 omission of repetition, circumlocution, digression false starts

3.3 compression of sentences or word groups

3.4 compression of examples

3.5 use of abbreviations and symbols

4. Extracting salient points to summarise, orally or in writing

4.1 a whole text, film or lecture

4.2 a specific idea or topic in a text, film or lecture

4.3 the underlying idea or point of the text, film or lecture

5. Selective extraction of relevant points from various sources, written or oral, involving

5.1 the co-ordination of related information

5.2 the ordered rearrangement of contrasting items

5.3 the tabulation of information for comparison and contrast

6. Basic reference skills: understanding and use of

6.1 graphic presentation (eg. headings, subheadings, numbering, indentation)

6.2 referencing and indicating sources

Once these skills had been listed I next had to look at the materials and methods to be used for teaching them. As far as the first three skills were concerned the best book I have found is Read and Note by Keith Purvis.[5] This book is designed to teach and practise the essential study skills of reading and note-taking and was developed from a study skills component which was part of the English course in the Faculty of Medicine at the University of Riyadh in Saudi Arabia. Thus, it is very well suited to our students who are on a similar programme in Kuwait. However, we decided that this book should be studied before the third semester course and so we are now using it in our first and second semester courses. Thus, by the time our students reach the third semester course they will have been taught some of the basics of the skills I have outlined. Then, the teacher will use the third-semester text books to continue the teaching of these skills in class. The students still give oral presentations in class as before, and they still do written assignments, but the difference is that the teacher now takes a much more active part in the teaching of the study skills. The teacher's role is no longer to listen and to read while students practise, but to teach the skills systematically. This has meant that we have had to reduce considerably the amount of material covered in the semester. Our classes no longer run themselves; the role of the teacher has been increased.

In conclusion, we can now say that our course in the third semester is more truly "student-centred". This is because the objectives are more precisely stated and the language skills which are necessary for achieving these objectives have been detailed. We are now working on systematic methods of teaching these skills. By "student-centred study skills" we now mean the teaching of skills which are relevant to the students' needs. This in turn necessitates more teaching skills and places more emphasis on the role of the teacher.

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Troublesome English T*

by Victor W. Mason
Tests & Measurement Office

Abstract

Inconsistency of grapheme-phoneme correspondence for English consonants is probably best illustrated in the case of the voiceless alveolar stops, usually symbolized by the letter t. In writing, the letter t --- alone or in combination with other letters --- can represent a wide variety of sounds. In rapid speech, many voiceless alveolar stops are either lost or significantly transformed under the influence of their phonological environments. It is demonstrated that the phonological rules of English sometimes make an important distinction between morph-final voiceless alveolar stops which are part of a morph-final cluster and those which are not. Finally, it is pointed out that unreleased regular-verb inflections also provide a case, in English, in which the feature of phoneme length for consonants is crucial to comprehension of global meaning of an utterance.

*The writer wishes to express his appreciation to Mr. Mark Calderbank and Mr. Ed Richards for their very helpful suggestions for strengthening this paper.

A. Introduction

1. English is justly famous for the lack of consistency with which its written symbols attempt to reflect the spoken language. English spelling is especially notorious for the seeming capriciousness with which the alphabet often represents its vowels, but there is much inconsistency in grapheme-phoneme correspondence for many of its consonants as well---notably the voiceless alveolar stops, usually spelled t.

2. Few English consonants appear in the orthography with greater frequency than t, and probably none exemplifies the inconsistency between the written and spoken symbols better. The bewildering variety of rules governing its pronunciation* in a multitude of environments is certain to result in difficulties for EFL learners at the beginning and various "intermediate" stages of their studies, when both their lexicon and their opportunities for speaking and reading the language are likely to be, by definition, rather limited.

3. This paper will first discuss the variety of pronunciation attaching in actual usage to the written symbol t, but will concentrate mainly on various voiceless alveolar stops of connected English speech---all allophones of the "notion of /t/"---whether spelled with the letter t or not. The paper is particularly concerned with those conditions of usage in rapid native-speaker utterance which define the actual rules of pronunciation, in English as in any other language. As Gimson notes (290), any of the phonemes of English is simply an idea---the result of the "process of abstraction from connected speech." Any such phonetic abstraction---e.g., the notion of /t/ ---depends in any particular case for its "phonetic realization ... on the nature of the context" of the given utterance (ibid.). Rapid speech is a sequence of sounds in contiguity with one another, mutually determining one another's phonetic qualities. As will be demonstrated below, few English consonants are as sensitive to their environment as the voiceless alveolar stops.

---

*This paper only attempts to describe the usage of t in standard American English. Many rules will correspond with those of RP, but some undoubtedly will not.

4. Many phonetic renderings of the spelled letter t are well-known (see Part B below), as are some modifications of the standardized (dictionary) pronunciation of voiceless alveolar stops under conditions of rapid speech. Many other characteristics of the behavior of such stops, however, are not widely known, and thus go untaught in the EFL classroom. The rules governing these latter phenomena apply especially to contextualized utterances as realized under conditions of rapid native-speaker articulation and occur most commonly at syllable boundaries. Since EFL students have never been taught to pronounce as native speakers do, many problems of listening comprehension involving discourse that contains the high-frequency voiceless alveolar stops can be presumed to occur (Ladefoged, Hockett). Pronunciation of these stops thus becomes one of the best sets of indicators of non-native speech, however fluent.

5. This writer found from personal experience that these related communication problems in the oral-aural skills may be particularly severe for that large number of EFL students, when newly exposed to rapid native-speaker articulation, who have been taught English primarily in their native language by the grammar-translation method and who therefore tend to try to translate everything they hear---live or taped---word by word. The remarkable result quite often is lack of comprehension of the very simplest words in the language ending in /-t/.

B. Well-known Varieties of Pronunciation of Spelled T

6. Most native speakers of English are well aware that spelled t is often pronounced in a variety of ways. Thus, the letter t---either alone or in combination with other letters---in the examples below is used to represent seven phonetically quite distinct sounds, as well as one sound-cluster (/tʃ/). Five of those individual sounds are phonemically distinct in English: (1), (3), (4), (5) and (7). Three of the seven individual sounds ---(1), (2) and (8)---are allophones of English /t/, and most native speakers are not

aware of the phonetic differences among them; in other languages, they are not infrequently phonemically distinct.

(1)	too	[tʰ]	(fully aspirated)
(2)	hit	/t/	(unaspirated)
(3)	this	/ð/	
(4)	think	/θ/	
(5)	partial	/ʃ/	
(6)	question	/tʃ/	(palato-alveolar affricate)
(7)	equation	/ʒ/	
(8)	water		(flap t)

In addition, the unaspirated /t/ of hit in (2) above is optionally either released or unreleased, depending on phonetic circumstances. (In other languages, one of these alternatives may be obligatory.) However, in other environments, unaspirated /t/ is often obligatorily released:

(9) soft

or unreleased:

(10) at dawn

Example (8) in standard American English is the well-known "flap t," which is really a rapid alveolar tap rather than a stop, and is very similar to the RP [ɾ], an allophone (in British English) of /r/ (Gimson, 208).

7. The foregoing data illustrate the most common phonetic renderings for spelled English t. They do not exhaust the list of possible examples of either grapheme-phoneme non-correspondence for, or different phonetic realizations of, the letter in English; for example, there is the word Thailand, in which th represents [tʰ], the fully aspirated /t/, and perhaps the reader can think of other cases. Moreover, no mention has been made of those many words spelled with ch in which t is pronounced but not spelled:

(11) much /mətʃ/

C. Phonetic Modifications of Voiceless Alveolar Stops

8. There are many circumstances of connected English speech in which a voiceless alveolar stop is significantly modified by its environment from its "normal" phonetic shape---or is lost altogether. The data below demonstrate some of the representative environments for these phenomena.

1. elision

9. Unaspirated syllable-final /t/ is frequently lost in rapid connected speech---either optionally or nistorically---particularly in the presence of certain fricatives and nasals:

(12) soft - sof(t)en
(13) Wes(t)minster, res(t)less
(14) You mus(t) sometimes wonder.
(15) It usually cos(t)s us only about two dinars.
(16) We've got plen(t)y of time.
(17) The sign says twen(t)y-nine miles, doesn'(t) it?
(18) Cologne has an in(t)ernationally celebrated cathedral.

10. Sometimes that omission has become obligatory over time, as in (12) above and (19) below:

(19) castle, wrestle, fasten

or optional, depending on dialect or idiolect:

(20) often

2. intersyllabic coalescence

11. Another common source of phonetic transformation occurs when one allophone of /t/ is changed into another through

intersyllabic coalescence (IC), as in the case of the following inflections:

(21)	want	-	wanted	['wan·t^{h}Id]
(22)	rest	-	rested	['rɛs·stId]
	craft	-	crafted	['k^{h}ræf·ftId]
(23)	bat	-	batted	['bæ·t^{h}Id]
				or with flap t
	part	-	parted	['p^{h}aɚ·t^{h}Id]
				or with flap t
(24)	bat	-	batting	(flap t)
		-	batter	(flap t)
(25)	part	-	parting	(flap t)

Final /t/ in the base form of the above regular verbs demonstrates how the syllable-final consonant separates from its morph either to become syllable-initial in connected speech, as in (21) and (23)-(25) above, or to become part of a syllable-initial cluster, as in (22). The general pattern is for the previously word-final, unaspirated, optionally released /t/ to change to a syllable-initial intervocalic flap, a fully aspirated [t^{h}] or an obligatorily released unaspirated (or weakly aspirated) stop.

12. Any part of speech---not only verbs---can illustrate the phenomenon of IC in a/t/final lexical item, as in the articulation of a careful speaker of the following tag question:

(26) It still runs, doesn't it? [...dʌ·zIn·tIt?]

That coalescence may also sometimes occur between /-t/ and a following semi-vowel:

(27) Please send it promptly. [...'p^{h}ram[p]*·tli]

(28) an apt reply [ə·'næp[t]*·trI·'p^{h}lai]

---

*Presence of (phonological) syllable-final consonant weak or doubtful in rapid connected speech.

3. assimilation

13. Another important source of phonetic modification of morph-final /t/ is assimilation, the process whereby certain features of contiguous sounds become more like one another according to certain predictable rules of phonology for a dialect of a language. The most widely recognized form of assimilation of American-English syllable-final t occurs when the voiceless alveolar stop is followed by the palatal semi-vowel /j/, usually written in the orthography as y:

(29) Why don't you wait your turn!

In such environments, even educated American speakers tend to produce an utterance in which the alveolar stop and the palatal glide come more closely to approximate each other to at least a moderate degree of palato-alveolar affrication, which at its most prominent in English becomes the consonant cluster /tʃ/, generally spelled ch (as in church).

14. Perhaps one of the most important categories of assimilation in the pronunciation of most, if not all, dialects of English is that which occurs between syllable-final alveolar stops and following syllable-initial dental fricatives, particularly when the former represent regular-verb past-tense and -participial inflections. In the four possible combinations of paired consonants below:

$$\left\{\begin{matrix}/\text{-t}/\\ /\text{-d}/\end{matrix}\right\}\left\{\begin{matrix}/\theta\text{-}/\\ /ð\text{-}/\end{matrix}\right\}$$

there are virtually always both forward and backward assimilation that simultaneously alter the features of both the stop and the fricative. This is (a) because the two consecutive consonants, as in (30) and (31) below, are pronounced in exactly the same place:

(30) He's at the game.

(31) We watched three times.

and (b) because that place of articulation is neither the alveolar ridge nor the tips of the upper teeth, but rather a place somewhere in between. Where that place may be in each case depends mainly on the relative degree of stress of the two adjacent syllables of which those two consonants are a part. This writer found from experience that EFL students with generally poor control of English phonology often had great difficulty with hearing and producing accurately such high-frequency English environments as those underlined in the sentences above.

4. glottal-stop substitution

15. One of the most interesting and widespread cases of phonetic transformation in rapid oral English involves substitution of the glottal stop, [ʔ], for syllable-final /t/, and sometimes for syllable-initial t and even the consonant sequence /-nt/. Data in the following sentence are illustrative:

(32) But what would that sentence mean?

[bəʔ·'wəʔ·wUd·ðæʔ·sɛʔ·ʔn̩s·'smin?]

In rapid American English speech, none of the four "t"'s (of but, what, that and sentence) is likely to be articulated at the alveolar ridge. As Stanley points out (289-91), the 22 phonemes in this sentence (the total of discrete English sounds in the six words when pronounced each in isolation) could easily be pronounced within one second---but that articulation would be rather difficult within such a short time-span without the phonetic modifications pointed out above, as well as the assimilation between the third and the fourth syllables, and the IC between the last two.

16. There seem to be at least seven general sub-categories of the rule of glottal-stop substitution for voiceless alveolar stops, as illustrated in the following data:

(33) cotton, Patton, Britain, eaten, Eton

in which intervocalic /t/ is followed by syllabic n ([n̩]);

(34) curtains, certainly, molten, carton

in which syllable-initial /t/ is preceded by a semi-vowel (/r/ or /l/) and followed by [n̩];

(35) sentence, mountains, sentinel, martinet

in which syllable-initial /t/ is preceded by /-n/ and is followed by [n̩], with the consonant sequence /-nt-/ replaced by a nasalized glottal stop;

(36) don't, can't, won't, Saint, weren't

in which the word-final cluster /-nt/ is replaced by a nasalized glottal stop;

(37) (a) nightlife, at last, bootleg

(b) coatroom, boatwright

(c) network, catwalk, But why?

(d) not yet, at your service*

in which syllable-final /-t/ is followed by a syllable-initial semi-vowel;

(38) (a) nutmeg, nightmare

(b) lightning, partner

in which syllable-final /-t/ is followed by a syllable-initial nasal;

(39) that day, What time?, that sign

in which syllable-final /-t/ is followed, syllable-initial, by another alveolar consonant.

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*In part 3 (assimilation) above, this combination was seen as sometimes assimilating. Quite often, however, the speaker may optionally substitute a glottal stop for /-t/.

17. It is important to note that the above glottal-stop substitutions are not obligatory in connected speech, but rather so common in actual rapid conversation as to leave little doubt that the overwhelming majority of cases of American English usage, in environments like those in (32)-(39) above (and probably many others as well), involve this phenomenon. In a sentence like the following:

(40) Meet me in Saint Louis.

the native speaker nearly always replaces the /-t/ in meet and the /-nt/ of Saint with a glottal stop. The tip of his tongue touches the alveolar ridge only for the /-n/ of in and the /l-/ of Louis. The reader can test his own rapid articulation of the following strings in a similar manner:

(41) Don't we have any more bread?

(42) It would certainly help, don't you think?

(43) At last "Patton"'s coming to our local theater!

18. Several generalizations about glottal-stop substitutions for voiceless alveolar stops can be made from the above data. (1) Such substitutions occur when a word-medial, intervocalic voiceless alveolar stop is followed by [n̥]. (2) They occur syllable-final when the following syllable begins with a semi-vowel, a nasal or another alveolar consonant. (3) They occur frequently to replace the consonant sequence /-nt(-)/ under the specific circumstances illustrated in (35) and (36) above.

19. These generalizations, however, must be qualified to exclude environments in which /-t/ is part of a syllable-final consonant cluster other than the clusters /-rt/, /-lt/ and /-nt/. For example:

(44) They walked nine miles.

(45) You laughed when I did.

(46) He hurried aft when I did.

Thus, it would appear that the glottal stop is not substituted for regular-verb past-tense or -participial inflections, which

are devoiced only when following another voiceless consonant---see (44) and (45) above. There are exceptions, however, as the two following strings, with inflections generally archaic in modern American English, reveal:

(47) This lesson must be learnt well.

(48) The body was burnt beyond recognition.

Clearly, in both sentences the past-participial inflection, as well as the morph-final /-n/, can be replaced, again by a nasalized glottal stop.

20. In all of the above, the speaker of RP will no doubt find points of similarity with his own idiolect. Gimson (pp. 297-9) presents considerable evidence for the instability of /-t/ in RP. The patterns of usage he cites appear to resemble those of standard American English in many particulars, and to vary from them in quite a few others.

D. Unreleased Voiceless Regular-Verb Inflections

21. One important final source of difficulty for EFL learners resulting from the voiceless alveolar stop deserves mention, again because of the effect which it may have upon comprehension of global meaning of an utterance. In English, unlike many other languages, length of a phoneme which is a consonant seldom makes a difference to the meaning of an utterance. But there are some cases, again involving the verb system, when that length becomes extremely important for discerning or transmitting the meaning of a statement, as the following example sentences reveal:

(49) They'll live at home if possible.

(50) You wished to see me at nine o'clock?

(51) He's shocked the whole community.

(52) We helped number the pages.

22. In all of the underlined environments, length of the first of each pair of phonemes carries vital information to the ears of the native speaker, information most EFL students can reliably be expected to miss. In (50), the student wanting to avoid embarrassment---whether in front of an adviser, an employer, or a friend, and whether as speaker or listener---had better get his times straight. Understanding of global meaning---and knowing whether the reference is to past, present or future is global in the best sense of the word---obviously falls very heavily on the lengthened voiceless alveolar stop.

23. Example (51) helps to illustrate how comprehension of contracted auxiliary verbs and of participial inflections can be affected by common assimilations. Backward assimilation from /ʃ-/ obscures the contracted auxiliary and the influence of /θ-/ in the similarly obscures the inflection on shock.

24. It should be stressed that in environments such as those of (49) to (51) above, what is unusual for English (though not for many other languages) is that it is consonant length which is phonemic. In effect, the native speaker approximately "doubles" the length of the consonant in each underlined passage. The importance of phoneme length for meaning is quite commonly recognized by EFL teachers in the case of English vowels. For example, EFL students often learn that the easiest way to distinguish between pairs of words like bead and beat or cab and cap is to concentrate on the extraordinary difference in the length of the vowel in a given pair of words, and to a certain extent on the difference in voicing.

25. It is well-known that the English verb system is one of the most difficult aspects of the language to learn, and comprehension problems stemming from troublesome phonological environments like those in sentences (49) to (52) simply help to provide an additional explanation for why that is so. Without sufficient practice in pronouncing such high-frequency environments, the EFL student is not likely to comprehend

clearly oral discourse containing them, especially in the blur of rapid native speaker conversation.*

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*In much of the foregoing discussion, there is an obvious dilemma for the EFL classroom teacher. Much colloquial English speech, even that of educated native speakers, contains phonetic deviations (elisions, glottal-stop substitutions, etc.) which the teacher may, for one reason or another, reasonably regard as forms of the language unacceptable for instruction in the EFL classroom. It is not the purpose of this paper to attempt to influence such value judgments by advocating the instruction of substandard versions of oral English; the objective is, here, rather to point up the dilemma inherent in the theory of Hockett, Ladefoged and others that there is good reason to believe that troublesome phonological environments are often aurally incomprehensible to foreign-language students until they themselves have had sufficient opportunity to practice the difficult sound-sequences involved orally.

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ESP For the Machine-Shop

Tim Hayward
ELU - Science

This article is a report on an E.S.P. course run by the E.L.U. Science, in conjunction with the training section of the Physics department, for machine shop operators from the Science Faculty workshops. It covers the needs assessment, materials and execution of the course, suggesting also some of the weaknesses of the project and their remedies.

The first stage in the course design, the analysis of the learners' English Language requirements was carried out using three accesses:

a) an examination of the job description sheets of all the potential trainees, to discover the work areas in which large numbers participate and therefore to isolate common work areas for situational language use;

b) detailed discussions with the chief training officer, to reinforce the job sheets, to eliminate areas where English is not required and to find other areas not yet covered. (In addition, specific job areas being detailed at this point);

c) close observation of the worker in his environment was undertaken in those areas isolated by the first and second procedure. In this third access were a large number of "provoked situations" where the participants were native-speaker operatives, role-playing for the instructor.

This use of "provoked situations" as compared with "natural situations" presented the first major problem for the course: that of deciding whether to stick to standard language forms or to attempt to offer actual usage as would be encountered in an actual British work situation, with all its non-standard features. It was decided that standard forms should be used on the grounds that they provide a common ground for use by international groups, they are more teachable and because I do not believe in very informal language use in E.F.L.

This 3-pronged approach to needs analysis showed that the operatives undertook work in which English was used in the following areas:

a) the installation, maintenance and operation of engineering machinery and equipment;

b) the design, production and repair of material as required by the Science Faculty;

c) the advising of both technical and academic staff in the production of equipment;

d) additionally, they were required to undertake theoretical and practical training courses designed to improve existing skills or to teach new ones.

As acquaintance with trainers and the job situation grew, other, less frequent but nevertheless important activities came to light; reading instruction maintenance and safety manuals; writing work and safety reports; receiving and discussing training from written and spoken sources. In addition, activities in the spoken medium are considerably enlarged by the need for discussion in English in all work areas.

To establish the detailed language requirement, extensive reference was made to the training manuals of the British Industry Training Board, day to day work manuals, machine specifications and equipment catalogues, in addition to working conversations. Recurrent notions, of high frequency, in oral interaction, were found to be: requesting, asking for advice and help, giving advice and help, giving orders, querying, describing actions and states, causes and effects, correction, refusing and suggesting alternatives.

Of very high frequency in both written and spoken modes were instructions of various kinds, in addition to the well-established notions of: numbering; measurement (in a variety of areas including technical drawing); location; structure; capacity; cause and effect and properties of materials (including colour and texture).

Lexical items could be divided into two areas; those having a high frequency in the general work of the trainees and those having a significantly high frequency in specific work areas, being used intensively only when a particular work situation is encountered. Examples of the first area include items such as brush (n), coolant, goggles, screw (n) and vice, whereas the second includes items like taper drift, Allen key, tool post and gear train. The instructor was forced to make arbitrary decisions from time to time, when placing items into either category.

A placement test, using the multiple-choice short test from the E.L.U. Science, was run on the trainees and revealed a very low level of technical English. When, however, this was backed-up by a spoken test, many trainees were able to explain themselves quite adequately in what can only be called a pidgin English. It was decided to treat this knowledge as another language having interference value for the machine-shop course.

Having established the students needs, it was decided to structure the course in the following way:

Phase I: Listening, Speaking and limited Reading Skills in numbering and measurement followed by Instructional English.

Phase II: The integration into Phase I of the notions of location, structure, capacity, cause and effect and properties.

Phase III: The integration of Phase I and Phase II into the teaching of the recurrent notions in oral interaction mentioned above.

Immediately prior to considerations of detailed course writing it was decided to teach the class, 5 hours weekly, in the workshops, with the obvious advantages of constant access to realia and the actual work situation and the disadvantages of noise and interruptions for equipment deliveries, fire drills, etc.

The materials were originally written with the intention of providing a central reference point for all the work done

and as a jumping off point for class work in the actual work situation. Students were expected to build their own lexical lists from the items written on the blackboard during the class. The application of these ideas can be seen from the following example: teaching basic numbers with decimal points and fractions.

a) The student was presented with a variety of realia all showing numbers, fractions and decimals (examples are boxes of screws, nails and the containers for bits (drills) as well as graduated measuring equipment). In addition, the teacher had already drawn an enlarged and idealised label from a screw-box on the blackboard.

The teacher then says one of the numbers from the board example several times

(e.g. "one sixteenth")

pointing to the fraction clearly as he does so. He then asks the students to repeat after him, checking for mistakes (predictably they said "one sixteen") and correcting. Following more reinforcement, he asks the students to extract the fractions from the realia in front of them.

b) The class then moves to the prepared materials which are a reinforcement of the realia. Various possibilities can be exploited for working in pairs and threes at this stage. These materials were similar to those in English for Basic Maths[1].

c) The student next moves to the stores where he is obliged to select by following instructions (listening skill), instruct another student to select (production skill) and to clarify mistakes (discriminating skill), using the immense variety of labelled realia available. New lexical items are added to their lists. Here is an example of this in practice:

Student I: Give me 15 three-quarter inch nails, please.
Student II: Here you are, 50 three-quarter inch nails.

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1. David Blackie, 1978

Student I: No, I want 15 three-quarter inch nails.
Student II: I gave you that.
Student I: No, you gave me 50 three-quarter inch nails and I wanted 15 three-quarter inch nails.

(Teacher can introduce almost any permutation on the mistake theme by handing different objects to Student I in response to his request.)

For the instructional English component, most of the lexis and structures from the Ewer and Hughes-Davies[2] list were taught in workshop contexts. An example here will suffice. The items to be taught are those underlined in the examples, structural words and phrases of movement commonly used in instructions.

The students are in front of a milling machine. A work piece has been attached to the work table and a cutting tool has been fitted into the chuck, both of these operations having already provided opportunities for language work. Now the instructor asks a student to regulate the worktable so as to bring the work piece in line with the cutter.

1. Raise the work table to the cutter. Move it upwards.
2. Now, move it across to the left.
3. Too much. Move it back to the right. Stop.
4. Move it forwards, slowly, too much, now backwards. etc.

indicating the direction of movement with his hands. Once the basic items have been established, the students working in pairs can be set to practice in a variety of work situations. In addition to workshop situations, the instructor found it rewarding to introduce his car and other items into the classroom and have the students change wheels, plugs and points, etc. where sets of instructions were again built up from practice.

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2. J.R. Ewer and E. Hughes Davies
ELT Documents (74/4) The British Council

By the end of Phase I it was felt that the use of written teaching materials, even in the severely reduced form of the course, was hindering the learning process because the students were becoming increasingly reluctant to transfer their knowledge from the printed page to the work situation. Therefore, written materials were dropped and all work was carried out in the following order:

1. Language derived from the practice work situation.
2. Reinforcement in conventional classroom context around the blackboards.

This methodological shift had its greatest effect in Phase III where dialogues are built up around a situation, acting out roles and slotting in the English Language requirements as they become apparent. For example, a technician must go to the stores for a piece of equipment - how does he do it? The dialogue built up by the class and teacher went like this:

Student I: 'Good morning.'

Storeman : 'Good morning, can I help you?'

Student I: 'Yes, I need a 5 cm. circular milling cutter, please.'

Storeman : 'Just a moment. I'll see if I have one in stock.' (Pause)
'Yes, here we are. Would you sign for it, please?'

Student I:'Hang on - this one is faulty. Have you got another?'

Storeman : 'Let's see. You're quite right. I'll get another one.' (Pause)

Student I: 'Thanks very much. Cheerio.'

The course has attempted to provide students with receptive and productive skills in general technical language based on notional categories related to their general work area. The abandonment of traditional materials and the building

up of language from in-work situations has forced students to use English in their work and use notes only as a back-up, curtailing their reliance on the printed word. The method does however place a great burden on the teacher retaining control if he is to be left limping behind, in, for example, ensuring sufficient practice of particular notions.

Although there are many undoubted advantages to working directly in the trainees' work environment, an equally enthusiastic response can be obtained when activities related to, but outside, the normal work day were introduced.

EST TTI CORVALLIS 1979

by Jonathan Elliman
ELU Engineering

1: The place, the purpose, the programme

The 1979 Teacher Training Institute in English for Science and Technology, sponsored by Oregon State University, was held in Corvallis, Oregon, this last August. The academic objective was to represent both American and British thought and experience in the field of EST, and the strong tutorial body consisted of Karl Drobnic, John Lackstrom, John Swales, and Louis and Mary Todd Trimble. A further objective of the Institute was to provide an international forum for the person-to-person exchange of ideas and expertise. This was realised through the varied work and experience of the 32 participants.

The institute lasted four weeks, and the daily programme was a busy one. The working day started at 8.30, with an hour long session, at the beginning chaired by Karl Drobnic, dealing with EST curriculum and program design and administration, and later taken by John Lackstrom, who lectured on EST course design and methodology[1]. At 9.30, the participants divided into three groups, and attended the lectures given by John Swales, on writing EST materials, by Louis Trimble on the rhetorical, grammatical and lexical analysis of written EST, and by Mary Todd Trimble on EST textbook evaluation and supplementation. After a break of an hour and a half for lunch, the participants met again in plenary for the Forum session, in which individual participants gave presentations of their work. The Forum sessions were followed by opportunities to view video teacher-training films and the video recordings of a series

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1: British readers may be reminded of a difference between American and British terminology. In America, the academic 'program' is the British university 'course'; and the American 'course' is the British 'course component.'

of lessons given by John Lackstrom to a group of OSU overseas students, to illustrate certain methodological principles. After 4 p.m., the evenings were filled with individual work on preparing a Forum presentation or a personal project.

The academic contents of the training sessions can best be described in the order in which I personally, as a participant, encountered the lecturers over the four weeks.

2: Planning and Administering ESP Courses

Messrs Christy, Drobnic and Longenecker spoke about the planning and administration of special purpose language courses from the view point of an American University with academic technical resources available to serve an overseas client, and with a working English language program of General English which includes study skills for academic purposes.

When offering a proposal for an ESP course, it may be necessary to instruct the client as to the difference between ESL and ESP programs. The client may consider that an ordinary ESL program is sufficient preparation and base for specialised technical training, whereas the institution knows from experience that such a program is not an adequate preparation. In this case, the institution must make the client aware of the specialised language and communicative activities that the students must become proficient in, in order to be able to undertake their further technical studies or training, and to point out that these special language and communicative activities are not covered adequately in the General English program.

3: EST curriculum and program design

Karl Drobnic gave an overview of the historical origins of ESP, and dealt with current ideas about communication needs assessment, the derivation of objectives from a needs analysis, and methodological pathways to attain the objectives.

In origin, ESP is a response to political and economic developments, not an emergance from linguistics. English Language teaching developed from studies of linguistics and psychology, which led to theories of structure oriented, sentence level language learning. From the teacher's point of view, grammar was the thing to teach. But from the view point of developing countries, English was seen, not in its own terms, but for its instrumental value, as a tool for technological development. The reality is that imperialism, not linguistics, has shaped the world's language learning needs.

The implication for the classroom is that the ESP teacher must ensure that the English learned leads to the acquisition of another discipline. With this priority, linguistics, with its emphasis on grammar and on contrastive linguistics, has given place to consideration of the learners' needs. The ideal of linguistic competence has given way to the search for communicative competence.

Thus, syllabus design for a special purpose group must begin with a communication needs assessment. The assessor would use an objective system to specify the communication needs of the client in terms of the communicative activities of the place of study, training or work that the student wants to be equiped to use. An accurate communication needs profile will facilitate identification of the restricted repertoire to be taught, and the terminal learning goals.

A practical approach to investigating a client's communication needs would lead, for example, to interviews with students who have been through the courses the client students want to take, to find out what part of the program they found most difficult. Typically, in an American university, most students say that listening to lectures is a major difficulty. It was opinioned that it would take the average overseas student even with a 500-plus TOEFL score,

from six to twelve months to perform competently in lectures. Further, interviews with lecturers of overseas students reveal that, in the lecturers' opinion, the students have a major problem with writing.

To conclude, Karl Drobnic dealt with compromise and modification in course design. Distinction must be made between the definition of the goals and a decision on how to achieve them. Goals can be identified by the needs assessment. This will indicate communicative objectives in terms of what the learner must be able to do with language. But how the goals are attained is another problem. The most obvious way may be to take texts associated with target activities and use these as the basis for teaching material. This may not be the best way, however. Objectives may best be attained, not in terms of studying subject matter content for its own sake, but in terms of acquiring communicative strategies. To this end, the teacher must consider the learner. As materials writer, the ESP teacher should consider and exploit what the learner brings to the study situation in terms of study strategies and technical knowledge.

4: EST course book evaluation

Mary Trimble dealt with the criteria for course book analysis and appraisal. These criteria were listed in two categories: those relevant to the syllabus, which must serve the communication needs of the learners, and those relevant to the methodology, which can be compared with the teacher's own views. Features of syllabus content that must be rated according to the extent to which they fulfil the learners' needs are as follows. First, the subject matter, which is checked both for suitability of topic and for suitability of level. It may be assumed that a topic which is suitable for the learners, and at the right informational level for them, will also interest and motivate them. The language is checked next, for suitability of level. There may be a mis-match between subject level and language level. For example, post-training students may have a high level of subject knowledge but a low level of competence in English.

In this case, a strategy of parallelism may be adopted, where subject matter that is parallel to the target subject matter is chosen - e.g., another technical subject, like photography - which exemplifies the rhetorical and grammatical areas that are required for communication in the target subjects. This strategy may also be adopted for a class where the students represent different disciplines. The parallel subject matter may be seen as neutral, of general interest, and effective because of its novelty. The language in the course book is then checked for rhetorical, grammatical and lexical features, and for language skills, that should match the learners' eventual needs. The language must also be checked for authenticity. For this criterion, at an early stage in the course, the authenticity may be simulated, in that the texts may be teacher prepared, but the language must be derived from authentic language use.

Aspects of teaching vocabulary were dealt with. For ESP work, the teacher must have a corpus of lexical items that are associated with the technical subject. But the teacher will teach strategies for learning vocabulary, rather than the inventory of lexical items. The general strategy for teaching EST lexis would cover these areas: the existence of vocabulary that is needed for all thinking (vide Helen Barnard); the existence of sub-technical terms, common to general English - e.g. face, plate, shoe - which have one or more special meanings depending on the field or fields they are used in; and skills such as word-building, and dictionary use.

5: Rhetoric, grammar and lexis in written EST

Louis Trimble gave an outline of the principle characteristics of the rhetoric, grammar and lexis of written English for Science and Techonology, and discussed two strategies for the approach to the preparation of teaching materials for the EST student. Perhaps these characteristics and strategies, described in detail in

Trimble (1979)[1], can be listed as follows:

First, the EST student must be made aware of the following characteristics of the writing of Science and Technology:

1: that the EST paragraph is informational. It is a unit of discourse that intends to present to the reader a selected amount of information on a given area or subject.

2: that there are correlations between the objectives of the total discourse, the rhetorical functions and techniques, and the grammar. The objectives of the total discourse are seen at the level of the whole text (e.g. detailing an experiment).

3: that the EST paragraph is very limited in the number of rhetorical functions it employs, the ways in which these functions are organised, and the grammatical forms used to realise them.

4: that the objective of the whole text (e.g. detailing an experiment) is realised by general rhetorical functions at the level of part of the text (e.g. stating the purpose of the experiment), which in turn are realised by a limited number of specific rhetorical functions, namely: to describe (physical properties, functions and process), to define, to classify, to give instructions, and to convey information visually in diagrammatic or tabular form.

5: that the EST paragraph is deductive. It begins with a generalisation, which is then developed in a way appropriate to the subject matter, to the purpose of the paragraph and to a particular reader. This development is achieved, and the specific rhetorical functions are realised, by using a limited number of rhetorical techniques,

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[1]Trimble, L., (1979) Outline, the Rhetorical, Grammatical and Lexical Elements of Written ESP. mimeo: University of Washington, Seattle

mainly time order, space order, order of importance, cause and effect, comparison and contrast, exemplification, illustration and analogy.

6: that the EST paragraph is seen at a conceptual, rather than at a physical level. The EST paragraph may be associated with a part of the text, at the level of a general rhetorical function (e.g. stating purpose, reporting past research), or with a part of this unit, rather than with the physical paragraph marked off by indentation. Thus, the use of one or a mixture of specific rhetorical functions may be sustained over several physical paragraphs.

7: that EST functions are realised, at the level of form, very commonly by three grammatical features: model verb use, especially to express giving instructions; the non-temporal use of tense; and stative verb forms as agentless passives.

8: that the lexis of EST texts has two important characteristics: the use of sub-technical terms, and the use of noun compounds.

Second, the EST teacher must establish the identity of his students, and determine the heterogeneity or otherwise of the class, according to four main criteria:

1: native language

2: cultural traits related to previous learning

3: subject area, in relation to the students' professional standing, as beginner or expert, and so to their degree of knowledge in their field.

4: level of English ability

The EST teacher may use two main strategies in the preparation of teaching materials for a specific group of students. The first strategy is parallelism (see Section 4), the second, individualisation. The latter is the

strategy of making the students aware of the relationship between what they are learning in the English lessons and what they use English for in their subject classes: that is, of making the students aware of the instrumental value of the English they are learning.

6: The preparation of teaching materials

John Swales dealt with several important areas concerning the preparation of teaching materials. Two of these were teaching vocabulary, and pitfalls and misconceptions in course design.

Vocabulary may be considered a neglected area, today, with the current emphasis on discourse functions. Vocabulary is largely taught through reading skills, where strategies for dealing with unknown words, such as guessing meaning from context, and word formation, are developed. However, reading strategies are only successful with texts where most of the words are already known to the students. If the proportion of unknown words rises above about ten per cent, then reading comprehension sinks to frustration level. It would seem sensible to distinguish between teaching vocabulary skills, which is part of a reading lesson, and teaching vocabulary in its own terms. Research into learning strategies shows that many successful foreign language learners adopt rote learning of vocabulary lists. Vocabulary teaching should thus form part of an ESP course.

The approach to teaching vocabulary involves selecting a corpus of lexical items to suit the learners' immediate needs, and presenting a number of classificatory frameworks within which the students can pattern their new vocabulary. To select a suitable corpus of words, the students themselves may identify the learning items by reading a chapter in a text book, and marking all the words they do not know. An analysis of this list may well show that many belong to the category of summary words.
A major problem in writing is how to convey meaning from one sentence to the next. This concerns the field of cohesion, of which summary words form one aspect.

An inventory of summary words may be grouped and taught in association with relative rhetorical functions: e.g.

function	summary words
description of process	process, procedure, method
hypothesis	assumption, belief, premise
classification	class, category, group
	etc.

A similar method for teaching vocabulary would be to familiarise the students with other ways of grouping words: e.g.

method of grouping	example
operational sequence	wet, wash, rinse, dry
semantic field	shake, stir, mix
semantic cline, from general to specific	
cognates with learners' L_1	
etc.	

To practice, the students would be given a batch of words, as a self-instructional task. They would have to group the words according to given categories, with the help of a dictionary. Back in class, the students compare and discuss their lists of words, in pairs or groups, and then report to the class as a whole.

On the topic of pitfalls in materials writing, four areas of importance were noted. The first concerned syllabus design for course book writing. The usual model of syllabus design is linear, where the variables, from the collection of learning content to the writing of materials, are seen as a chronological sequence. This faces the obvious difficulty of acquiring the required information in chronological order. Information considered

fairly late in the linear model, e.g., concerning the professional quality of the teachers available, may radically affect earlier decisions. Consequently, a non-linear, cyclic model of syllabus design is preferred, which has recycling potential as new information becomes available which imposes constraints on previous decisions.

The second pitfall concerns a possible discrepancy between an assumption about the necessity of a given communicative skill, and the actual need for this skill in the students' study life. For example, it may be assumed that all academic students need note-taking skills, whereas observation may show (for example in a society with a rote-learning tradition) that the majority of students do not take notes in a lecture, but listen and copy notes afterwards from the few students who are good at taking them.

The third problem area concerns the current tendency for 'teachable insights' to be upgraded and 'unteachables' items to be downgraded. The popularity of transfer of information tables as a way to illustrate the organisation of a text, to provide a grid for analysis and prompts for synthesis, results in emphasis being put on functions that can be illustrated by tables. Thus, there may be overemphasis on a chart driven methodology, while functions that are difficult to chart (e.g. causation, explanation, introduction, conclusion) tend to be overlooked. It must be kept in mind that information transfer is a methodological feature, not a behavioural objective. The functions that cannot easily be charted must also be taught.

The fourth area concerns the 'myth' of materials writing. The check procedure for materials writing should include all language teaching experience, linguistic, psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic, pedagogic, administrative and so on. But reality resides in the paradox that writers working abroad have little access to other materials currently produced in the same field, and writers based at home have access to a very limited range of students.

7: Course design and methodology

John Lackstrom dealt with methodology and course design. As a learner-centred methodology was perhaps the focus of interest in these lectures, it might be suitable to highlight those features of the proposed course design that lead directly to the methodology described. In the following model for course design, these features have been underlined.

I: Course Design

Course descriptions

Course title; student body; duration; how the students get in; how the students get out; skills; constraints; materials available

II: Performance objectives

III: Curricular plan

A: Activity

B: Methodology

C: Syllabus

IV: Evaluation

V: Resources

An analysis of what is meant by the underlined categories, skills, performance objectives, activities, may show that the methodology to be proposed largely controls what features of language appear on the learning agenda on a day to day basis.

The statement of what the course intends to teach is seen as skills. Examples of skills, taken from offered

sample course designs, are:

"reading, speaking, writing and vocabulary"
or
"reading and discussion of case studies"
or
"examination writing under stress".

Again, performance objectives for the course are defined in broad behavioural terms, in relation to academic study tasks, with perhaps a functional inventory: e.g.

"students will read and take notes upon passages containing definition, examples, classification, lists, contrast, and cause and effect."
and
"students will construct well-organised and clearly expressed short compositions on subjects of their choice."

Again, in the Curricular Plan, the category activities comprises learning items expressed in terms of study skills: e.g. "reading and taking notes exercise."

In the presented model for course design , learning items are seen, not as grammatical items, nor as functional plus grammatical items, nor as functional plus study skills items, but at first instance as language skills and study skills. Place of priority is given to what the student does, in terms of language and study skills, and other learning items, functional and grammatical, are identified at a secondary stage, as and when the students find they have need of them. Thus, the category labelled 'syllabus' in the course design does not appear to be intended to hold an explicit agenda of rhetorical uses and their grammatical exponents, as would be the case with a functional syllabus. An example of syllabus content, given in a sample course design, contained informational topics - 'electricity'; functional items - 'instructions', 'properties of engineering materials'; and lexical items - 'tools, materials, containers and instruments.'

My interpretation of this model is that language activities, in terms of language skills and study skills, form the parameter of priority in the choice of learning items, and the catchment area within which functional and grammatical items will be dealt with as they arise. The word 'arise' is significant, because in the areas of semantic and linguistic items, the students are intended to create their own syllabus at the level of the individual classroom lesson. In one of the example performance objectives given above, the statement of learning intent was worded, "students will construct well-organised and clearly expressed short compositions on subjects of their choice." Note the phrase, "of their choice". For intermediate students, the teacher does not set a functional or grammatical syllabus. Functional and grammatical items are programmed by the target variety of English, which derives from the subject matter and associated professional activities. But at what moment particular functions and grammatical items appear in the language class largely depends upon the choice of the student, when he needs a particular semantic category or grammatical form to express what he has chosen to say.

An attempt will be made to list the main features of this learner-centred methodology that imposes such an important constraint upon the priority given to categories in the learning agenda.

First, teaching should be aimed, not at the language, but at the use of language. The teaching process can be divided into three stages, which aim to teach the student 'to know', 'to do' and 'to Do'. 'To know' is to understand, for example, that a good model for making a definition is the pattern,

A [item] _____ is a [class] _____ which [differences] _____

'To do' is to recognise this pattern the second time round and to use it correctly in exercises. But the main objective, 'to Do' is to choose to use a definition to explain a meaning or to introduce a topic. This is using the definition in the right context at the right time.

Second, to use language, the students must be motivated. ESP students are motivated mainly by their interest in the subject matter, and the instrumental uses to which they can put the language they learn. So, the information in the learning content must interest the students. From the students' point of view, 'interesting' may mean, 'what I think is correct information about something that interests me.'

This leads to a third feature of a learner-centred methodology, that the students' interest is ensured by having them choose both the topic, and what they are going to say about it. At an early level of study, the teacher would present alternative topics, and the student chooses one. At a later level, the student may choose from his own knowledge. It also means that the students must be led to initiate interaction. If they initiate, they choose what to say.

Fourth, the use of language depends upon true communication, and true communication means that a lot of the time the student who initiates will want to communicate with someone other than the teacher.

Fifth, the proof of learning is in effective communication or satisfactory performance of a task.

This learner-centred methodology was used in some demonstration lessons given by John Lackstrom and seen on video. The teacher was dealing with intermediate students of Administration. The objective was for the students to make summaries of information from a course text-book, and to organise the information into note-form so that it could be used for writing a report. The procedure was as follows:

Student A read an assigned passage from his Administration text-book for homework. He prepared a summary of the main points. In class, he presented the

information in a short talk to the class. The talk lasted about five minutes and contained five points.

Then student B remembered something that student A had said and repeated it. The teacher repeated student B's utterance, rephrasing it if necessary. Student B wrote the remembered sentence on the board. Then student C remembered another point student A had said, and repeated it. Thereafter, the procedure was the same as for student B, until the five points were on the board. The points were not in the original order, however. While the students reordered the points and wrote them in their textbooks, the teacher wrote the same text in note-form on another board. The teacher then prompted the students to reconstruct the text from these notes. The teacher pointed out and explained the significant points of rhetorical organisation and grammar as they went along.

These lessons demonstrated an important principle of a learner-centred methodology, that classroom analysis of the semantic or linguistic or lexical features of a text or utterance comes after the students have produced it. Thus, the teacher's analysis follows, not precedes the learners' attempts to communicate in the studied language.

8: Acknowledgements

I would like to end this article with an expression of thanks, both to the organisers and lecturers of the Corvallis EST Institute and to the Research and Conference Committee of the Language Centre, Kuwait University, who so generously provided me with the funds necessary for my attendance at the conference.

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE PLACEMENT TEST AND THE ORAL ABILITY OF ELU ARTS STUDENTS

by Steven Spurling, Edward Richards, Geoffrey McGraw and Ralph Setian, ELU Arts

During the spring semester of the 1978-79 academic year, the English Language Unit of the College of Arts and Education carried out research to determine whether their English Language Placement Test (ELPT) reflected the oral abilities of entering students. It was felt that the Placement Test should reflect (predict) oral ability, since success in ELU Arts classes (where spoken English is the medium of instruction) is dependent on students' ability to comprehend the spoken language and/or to express their confusion when they do not. If the test adequately predicts oral ability, then students should have a greater chance of success in ELU Arts classes because, through placement, students weak in oral English would be grouped in lower-level classes where the spoken language is emphasized, while strong students would go directly into upper-level classes where the development of reading skills is stressed.

In order to assess the relationship between the ELPT and oral ability, a measure of oral performance had to be selected. To this end, the Ilyin Oral Interview (IOI), a commercially available test, was chosen as the criterion measure. It was administered to 53 newly entered ELU Arts students by two interviewers (raters) chosen from among the ELU Arts staff. After the interviewing was completed, the results were tabulated and a statistical analysis was done to determine (1) the reliability of the IOI and (2) the correlation coefficient between the ELPT and the IOI to ascertain the accuracy of placement (in terms of oral ability) by the ELPT. This paper is a report of the findings, plus conclusions drawn from that analysis.

THE ILYIN ORAL INTERVIEW

The IOI is a test of oral English. It is composed of a series of pictures of a boy and his daily activities. Each

activity is labelled as to time reference (last Sunday, today, 7:30, 10:00, etc.). In general, the interviewer points to a picture and asks the examinee a question about it. The response is immediately marked. If the examinee's response to the question is both meaningful and grammatical, he is awarded a score of 2. If his response is meaningful but not grammatical, a score of 1 is given. If the response is not meaningful, a score of zero is recorded. The total test consists of 50 items (most of them questions) and takes about 30 minutes. The test is graded so that later questions are progressively more difficult than earlier ones (Ilyin, 1976, p. M1). If, at any time during the interview, the student demonstrates a continued lack of understanding, the interviewer can terminate the session. However, students who demonstrate their continued understanding through their responses cover all 50 items.

The IOI can be given either as a 50 item or an abbreviated 30 item test. Our two interviewers used only the complete 50 item version. The IOI also comes in two parallel forms, a "Tom" and a "Bill". One of our interviewers used only the "Bill" form. The other interviewer used both forms. A oneway analysis of variance was done to find out if the variance associated with interviewers and forms was significantly different. In both cases they were not, at the .05 level of significance.

TABLE 1

Difference Between Mean Scores and Variance Associated with Each Rater on the "Bill" Form of the IOI.

Rater	
1	2
$\bar{X}$ = 37.24	$\bar{X}$ = 43.14
SD = 14.31	SD = 24.74
N = 17	N = 22

TABLE 2

Difference Between Mean Scores and Variance Associated with Rater 1 on "Tom" and "Bill" Forms.

Form	
TOM	BILL
$\bar{X}$ = 48.62	$\bar{X}$ = 37.24
SD = 19.66	SD = 14.31
N = 13	N = 17

In general, the problem with all tests that require a subjective evaluation of student responses, as does the IOI, is that they are unreliable (Harris, 1969, p.85). The unreliability can be associated with the test itself or with the scorers. An internal consistency measure of reliability, such as correlating student scores or odd vs. even items, deals with the reliability of the test itself. When the odd-even internal consistency reliability was correlated for the IOI it was found to be odd-even=.97. This is quite respectable. However, the greatest reliability problem with interviews is that interviewers, in assessing oral ability, may be using different standards from each other in evaluating and scoring student responses.

To overcome this problem our two interviewers followed the interview training procedure outlined in the Ilyin Oral Interview manual (Ilyin 1976, p. M3). Both interviewers 1) read the manual, 2) gave the test to five native speakers, 3) studied the scoring section on p. M4, and 4) gave a further practice interview to a non-native speaker.

To check the inter-rater reliability of our raters, we had each interviewer score a small sample of taped interviews the other had done. Using a rather small number of students (N=11), the inter-rater reliability was found to be r= .98. Though this is highly satisfactory, it is recommended that future users of the IOI be more careful in the instruction of raters than is recommended in the manual. One of our raters noted that the other rater was

considerably more lenient in prompting and allowing time for students to answer than he was.

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE PLACEMENT TEST

The ELPT given in the College of Arts and Education in February 1978 was a four-option, multiple-choice test consisting of three separately timed parts, as follows:

TABLE 3

The ELPT: Subparts, Number of Items, and Time Allowed.

Part	Name	No. of Items	Time (Minutes)
I.	Grammar	60	40
II.	Vocabulary	35	20
III.	Reading Comprehension	30	50
	Total	125	110

For the 53 students involved in the IOI, the mean scores and standard deviations are given. The reliabilities quoted are from the test population as a whole and are based on the Kuder Richardson formula 20.

TABLE 4

The ELPT: Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, and Reliabilities of the Parts, and the Total.

Part	Name	Mean Score	SD	r_{xx}
I.	Grammar	31.97	7.99	.84
II.	Vocabulary	14.71	4.88	.84
III.	Reading Comprehension	13.45	5.65	.80
	TOTAL	60.13	16.64	.92

RESULTS AND CONCLUSION

The correlation coefficients for each part of the test with every other part and the IOI are presented below:

TABLE 5

Correlation Between the 3 Parts and Total of the ELPT and the IOI.

	I	II	III	IOI
I.		.67	.60	.58
II.			.62	.50
III.				.53
		TOTAL		.66

TABLE 6

Correlation Between the 3 parts and Total of the ELPT and the IOI Corrected for Attenuation.

	I	II	III	IOI
I.		.80	.73	.65
II.			.76	.56
III.				.61
		TOTAL		.71

What is clear from Tables 5 and 6 above is that the correlation coefficients are very low. Though both the IOI are ELPT are fairly reliable tests, neither reflects the other very well.

For the tests to be good indicators of each other we would expect that, after correction for attenuation, the intercorrelation should be in the .90s. In Table 6, the correlation (corrected for attenuation) between the IOI and the ELPT as a whole was only .71. This is below an acceptable overlap between the two tests.

Another way to look at the problem presented by the relatively small overlap of variance of the two tests is to consider how many students were misplaced by the ELPT. By this is meant 1) misplacement in terms of oral ability and 2) oral ability as judged by the ELPT. Table 7 contains information relevant to this point.

TABLE 7

The Number of Students the IOI Would Have Placed at the Same Level or Different Levels than the ELPT.

	IOI Placement					
ELPT Placement	Down 2	Down 1	Same	Up 1	Up 2	Up 3
*099			13	3	2	1
131		5	8	7	3	1
132	2			4		
133			1			
134		1	2			
Total Number of Students	2	6	24	14	5	2

It can be seen from this table that 24 students out of the 53 would have been placed the same by either the IOI or the ELPT. 20 students (6+14) were misplaced by the ELPT by one grade level; 7 students (2+5) were misplaced by two grade levels; and 2 students were misplaced by three.

The students who were misplaced by two or three grade levels should concern us here. (The ones that were misplaced by only one grade level might be deemed the consequence of an unavoidable margin or error that is part of any placement procedure.) In all, they equal 9 out of the 53, or 17% of the student sample. One of the interviewers made these

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*099 through 134 are classes that are offered in the College of Arts and Education and into which students are placed by the ELPT. 099 is a remedial, non-credit class while 131 through 134 are intermediate (and higher) credit classes. All classes are given 3 hours of English a week.

comments about two of these students (both 099 male students):

> "I (would have)placed this boy in 133 or 134. He is very much misplaced. He comprehended everything and communicated satisfactorily."
>
> "..... good communicative skills but weak in the control of grammar. But to have this student in the same class as Hamad or Nayef (two other 099 students) is really a shame."

It is, in fact, "a shame" to continue to ignore oral ability and place students as though they only functioned in a written medium. They do not. If the results of this study had indicated that oral ability is highly reflected in the skills that the ELPT assesses, then there would be no need to assess oral ability independently. However, this has not been the finding here. Oral ability does not seem to be adequately represented by our present Placement Test. Therefore, we should consider the possibility of including an oral component in future administration of the test so that a wider measure of English language proficiency can be had.

The situation is somewhat analogous to trusting one's weight to a stool. Would you sit on a stool if it had only one leg or two? Certainly, unless the one leg were very wide (enough to turn the stool into a stump), you would prefer to add another two or three legs before utilizing it as a piece of furniture at home. Similarly, before entrusting the weight of placement decisions to any test, it is wise to inquire whether the parts of a test are adequate to encompass the whole of a student's proficiency. If they are not, then it becomes necessary to expand the test to more completely cover that whole.

An additional listening comprehension subtest to be included in our ELPT would add another leg of support to our definition of what English proficiency is. It would improve placement by widening the base by which placement decisions are made. And while the listening comprehension

sub-section of the kind found on TOEFL and other similar tests are not perfect in their prediction of oral ability (Pike, 1976), they do seem to predict oral ability better than our ELPT presently does. As a consequence of this possibly better (but not perfect) prediction, and its inclusion in the weighting of Placement Test scores, placement in ELU Arts courses could be done with greater certainty that students are being placed where they belong.

REFERENCE:

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Scoring Reliability:
Writing Test, Engineering Placement Test
(Form EE18PZ)

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I. Introduction and Background

1. The English Language Unit (ELU) for the College of Engineering and Petroleum, Kuwait University, has for some time placed considerable emphasis on the development of writing skills in its sequence of required courses: 098, 099 (formerly 097*), 121 and 221 (formerly 122). Entering freshmen whose placement test scores are below the minimum standards for enrollment in the first required credit course, 121, are placed in either 098, a semi-intensive, 15-hour-per-week program intended to strengthen the four integrated language skills; or the higher-level 099, a five-hour-per-week remedial writing course.

2. The considerable emphasis on teaching writing skills to engineering students led to concern about the development of appropriate instruments to measure writing proficiency both of incoming students and of those completing each course in the unit's sequence of required courses. That concern has resulted, during the past two academic years, in increased attention to the development of valid and reliable testing instruments for both the direct and the indirect assessment of student writing ability.

3. The Tests & Measurement Office of Kuwait University Language Center has assisted the Engineering ELU in the construction and analyses of its tests of writing proficiency. In these analyses, a principal research question of great practical significance has been the

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*All references henceforth to Course 099 will be understood to mean 097, as the course was designated until this term.

reliability with which the unit's instructors rate the writing-test papers.

4. Two studies have thus far been undertaken on reader reliability. The first study was based on the writing test given as part of the September 1978 placement test[1]. That report was based on a representative sample of 20 of the 84 students placed, in September 1978, in either 099 or 121 on the basis of their writing-test scores. The report concluded that scores obtained at that time on the 20-minute essay on a single topic

> "were undoubtedly too unreliable to justify their use in making decisions concerning the assignment of students who had high scores on the objective part of the test to either Course [099] or [Course] 121. A major source of the unreliability was...the disagreements among judges and the disagreements between the same judges at different points in time on the ratings given by them to the same papers. Another source of the unreliability of the scores was not discussed in the paper---the low "sampling" reliability of a single essay question[2]. Had a different "general" question been asked, some students would have done better and others would have done less well than they did on the question to which they actually responded. The general conclusion to be drawn from these considerations is that a single, short essay should not be used independently for important placement decisions even if a reasonably high level of scoring reliability can be obtained." (emphasis added)

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[1] See T&M Office report: Scoring Reliability, Essay Question, Engineering Placement Test, Form EE18PZ, April 5, 1979.

[2] Research on the performance of students on essay questions has indicated unambiguously that there is an interactive effect between students and quality of response to different questions in the same domain. Even under conditions of high scoring reliability, correlations between scores for the same students on two questions on different topics in the same field typically range from 0.30 to 0.40.

5. The second reader-reliability study undertaken by the T&M Office on ELU Engineering writing tests was based on a revised version of the writing test given as part of the February 1979 placement test. It is this second study which is the concern of this paper.[3]

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[3] During the spring semester of the 1979-80 academic year, a third, much more comprehensive study of scoring reliability and internal consistency reliability is to be undertaken. This study will be done using the writing tests from the 098 final exam administered on January 2, 1980 to 127 students of that course. Various approaches to rating student writing will be explored. Because of the increased size and representativeness of the sample that will be used in the 1980 study, the results will be generalizable to future operational readings of the ELU Engineering Writing Test.

II. The Second Reader Reliability Study

A. Summary

6. Because of dissatisfaction with the results obtained through a 20-minute essay-type task on a single, assigned, non-technical topic in the September 1978 administration of the engineering placement test, it was replaced by a 30-minute writing test in the February 1979 placement test administration. The questions in the new three-part test were more specific and technical, and the criteria for rating the responses were more explicit than was the case with the 20-minute essay. (The papers of all 16 students placed in 099 and 121 by the February 1979 placement examination were read for this study.)

7. Unfortunately, the samples of papers from the September and February administrations were not at all comparable. Because of this, it is impossible to tell the extent to which the high reader reliabilities that are reported in this study are a consequence of the change in format of the writing section of the test or a reflection of the greater heterogeneity of talent represented in the papers read in February than in those read in September.

8. It is of interest to note that the four individuals who were assigned to Course 121 on the basis of the writing test were among the top five in objective-test scores. No student whose objective-test score was below the cut-off point between Course 099 and Course 121 was found acceptable for 121. The conclusion of this is that the 30-minute writing test, read by three teachers, had minimal effect on the placement of students into 099 and 121.

B. Description of the Study

9. The multiple-choice section of the placement test that was given in February 1979 was the same as that given in September 1978, and the cut-off points used for the

preliminary assignments of entering students to Courses 098, 099 and 121 were the same in both administrations. In February, as in September, writing tests were read only for those students whose objective scores qualified them for admission to the more advanced courses, 099 and 121. The writing samples were intended to serve as an additional screening device in identifying those students admissible to 121. Further details are given in the references cited below.

10. The writing test, for which a total of 30 minutes was allowed, consisted of three unseparately-timed parts. The first part was made up of five groups of three or four sentences each. The student's task was to combine the information given in each group of sentences into a single, grammatically correct sentence. The second part required the student to write several sentences relating to the shape, location and dimensions of parts shown in a schematic diagram. In the third part, the student was asked to describe, on the basis of information provided in a picture, the operation of a hot-water heating system.

11. All three parts of each student's paper were read by each of three teachers, the same three teachers reading all papers. The papers were identified by code-number, and no teacher had knowledge of the ratings made by the others. Each teacher gave each of the three parts either a rating of "y" for acceptable or an "n" for not-acceptable. Whereas in the September administration the sole criterion for judging the merit of responses was: "Does this essay demonstrate a level of proficiency adequate for admission to the 121 course?", a more detailed set of criteria was used in February. A statement of these criteria is appended to this report (see Appendix 1). If the teacher rated at least two parts of the writing test acceptable, the entire paper was given a score of "Y". If at least two of the three readers gave overall scores of "y", the student was considered to be sufficiently proficient for entry into the 121 course. Students with two or more "n"'s in overall scores were assigned to the 099 course.

12. Two months following the February administration, the same writing tests were re-read by (a) the three teachers who had initially read them and (b) three other teachers. All teachers read all papers. All the basic score data for this report are given in Appendix 2. For statistical analysis purposes, all ratings of "y" were given a numerical equivalent of "1" and all "n"'s, an equivalent of "0".

C. An Important Limitation In Generalizing from the Findings of This Study

13. The sample of essays read in connection with the reader-reliability study undertaken after the September 1978 placement-test administration consisted of 20 papers drawn from a population of 84 papers. Approximately 50 per cent of these papers were for individuals whose objective scores fell within plus or minus 10 points of the cut-off score between 099 and 121 (i.e., a score of 109.5). In the reader-reliability study undertaken following the February 1979 placement-test administration (the study that is the concern of this paper), all papers (N=16) were read for students whose objective-test scores were in the 099 and 121 ranges. Regrettably, from the point of view of making comparisons between the results of the two studies, the objective-test score distribution for the February sample was very much different from that of the September sample. Five of the students in the February sample had objective scores in the range 118-140*; the remaining 11 had scores in the range 83-101. Hence, there were virtually no papers in the critical 100-120 range. For this reason, the task of the readers following the February administration was much easier

*The multiple-choice portion of the exam consisted of 150 items on grammatical structure, vocabulary and reading comprehension (50 items each).

than that following the one in September. It is obviously easier to recognize the merit of a few outstanding papers that are embedded in a group of mediocre papers than it is to recognize differences in merit among papers that have been written by students of similar ability.

14. The various indexes of reliability that are reported in this paper are all higher than those reported in the reference cited for the September 1978 study. The fact that they are higher is likely to be a consequence of the operation of two factors whose effects cannot be disentangled: (1) the greater specificity of the questions in the February writing test and the greater specificity of the scoring criteria for rating it, and (2) the wider distribution of talent in the February than in the September study.

D. Results

(1) Differences in the Standards of the Individual Readers

15. Given in Table 1 below is the number of answers out of a total of 48 (three questions for each of sixteen students) that each of the six teachers found acceptable in his or her initial reading of the papers.

Table 1

Results of First Reading by Each of Six Teachers

Teacher	A	B	C	D	E	F
No. acceptable	13	18	15	8	12	14

Teacher B, who found 37.5 per cent of all answers acceptable, was certainly more lenient than teacher D, who accepted only 16.7 per cent.

(2) Amount of Agreement between Pairs of Raters (Experimental Rating)

16. Inasmuch as there were 6 raters, there were 15 possible pairs of raters (A with B, A with C...E with F). Each pair read 16 papers. Hence, there were a total of 240 paired judgements (15x16) on the quality of the written responses. The figures below give the total amount of agreement and disagreement in the paired judgements for each of the three parts of the writing test.

Table 2
Extent of Agreement
among Pairs of Raters

Ratings		Part 1		Part 2		Part 3		Totals	
A	B	No,	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
yes	yes	54	22.5	52	21.7	41	17.1	147	20.4
yes	no	42	17.5	41	17.1	24	10.0	107	14.9
no	no	144	60.0	147	61.2	175	72.9	466	64.7
		240	100.0	240	100.0	240	100.0	720	100.0

17. Overall, the percentage of disagreement between pairs of raters (14.9%) is considerably less than that observed in the previous study (37.3%). It is of interest to note that the percentage of disagreement was lower on the third part of the test (10.0%) than on the first two parts (17.5% and 17.1%, respectively), even though Part 3 was the most unstructured part of the test. This may be a reflection of the inability of the students with low scores on the objective test to cope with such material. As far as students are concerned, Part 3 was the most difficult part of the test. Teachers rated 31.3% of Part 1 and 30.2% of Part 2 responses acceptable, but only 21.9% of the part 3 responses.

(3) Changes in the Ratings Given by the Same Individual Raters in the Second Reading of the Same Papers

18. Three teachers read the 16 papers immediately following the February placement-test administration. The same three teachers read the same papers two months later. The table below gives the numbers of changes in ratings given by each teacher for each part of the writing test and in the overall ratings for the entire test.

Table 3: Changes in Individual Ratings

Part of Test	Teacher			Sub-total
	A	B	C	
1	5	4	4	13 (27.1%)
2	1	2	1	4 (8.3%)
3	2	1	2	5 (10.4%)
Sub-total	8	7	7	22 (15.3%)
Overall Ratings	+3	-1	+1	5

19. The above table indicates that of the total of 144 part scores assigned by teachers in the initial reading (3 teachers x 16 papers x 3 questions per paper), a total of 22 changes were made in the second reading. Of these 22 changes, 17 were changes from non-acceptable to acceptable. Hence, the three teachers, as a group, were more lenient on the second reading than on the first. For reasons that are not apparent, Part 1 of the test (combining information from a set of simple sentences into a complex sentence) was more susceptible than the other parts to changes in teacher judgement over time.

20. Of the 48 overall judgements of the papers (3 teachers x 16 papers), 5 changes occurred between the first and second readings, a change affecting 10.4 per cent of the individual judgements. Four students whose papers had initially been rejected by individual teachers would have been judged acceptable; and one student initially accepted would have been rejected. The 10.4 per cent change in the overall judgements of individual teachers is less than half of the corresponding figure reported in the results of the September study (22%).

(4) Changes between the First and Second Readings of the Sample Papers on Overall Acceptability

21. As a result of the February reading, 4 of the 16 students were found to be acceptable for admission into Course 121 (that is, 4 students had received overall ratings of approval from two or more of the readers). In the second (the experimental) reading, these same students received qualifying scores, as did two others. No student accepted on the basis of the first reading would have been rejected on the basis of the second reading.

(5) Differences between the First and Second Sets of Teachers in Their Judgements of Overall Acceptability

22. The overall judgements of the second set of three teachers who read the papers for the first time in March corresponded exactly with the judgements of the three teachers who read the papers initially in February. The same four students found acceptable for admission into 121 by the February readers were also found acceptable by the March readers; and all those rejected by the February readers were rejected by the March readers. In the reliability study based on the September administration of the placement test, the two panels differed in their assessment of 40 per cent of the cases.

(6) Estimates of Scoring Reliability

23. Using the same analysis of variance techniques described in the report based on the September 1978 data, the following reader-reliability estimates were obtained[1]:

Table 4: Reader-Reliability Estimates

	For One Reader	For Three Readers	For Six Readers
Part 1	.6227	.8320	.9083
Part 2	.6227	.8349	.9100
Part 3	.7942	.9205	.9586
Total	.8148	.9296	.9635

24. The reader reliability for total scores based on three or more readers is highly satisfactory. It must be kept in mind, however, that these figures apply only to samples as diverse as those used in the study.

[1] The tables summarizing the results of the Analysis of Variance Test are not presented in the report. They are available in the Tests & Measurement Office of Kuwait University Language Center.

(7) Intercorrelations of the Three Parts and Correlation between Total Score on Writing Test and Objective Score

25. Table 5 below gives the intercorrelations of the scores for the three parts of the writing test. It also shows the correlation between students' total scores on the two major parts of the placement exam, the writing test and the objective test.

Table 5

Intercorrelations among the Part Scores of the Writing Test; and Correlations between Students' Total Writing-Test and Objective Scores

Part 1 vs. Part 2:	r = 0.64
Part 2 vs. Part 3:	r = 0.62
Part 1 vs. Part 3:	r = 0.91
Writing Total Scores vs. Objective Total Scores:	r = 0.92

Appendix 1

Criteria for Rejecting Writing Samples

1. Use of commas in place of periods; i.e., run-on sentences.
2. No article before singular nouns.
3. Lack of singular-plural agreement.
4. Incorrect use of verb forms; e.g., incorrect mixing of present/past tense within a paragraph; incorrect use of transitive/intransitive verbs; incorrect formation of relative or reduced relative clauses; etc.
5. Illogical organization within a paragraph, including the use of unsuitable connectives.
6. Inappropriate response (student does not answer the question as set).

Editor's note:

This set of criteria is no longer used. The scoring criteria have undergone continual revision for the past year, and have been greatly elaborated.

TEACHERS' RATINGS OF ESSAY QUESTIONS

Appendix 2

	INITIAL READING (Feb.)												SECOND READING BY SAME TEACHERS												FIRST READING BY OTHER TEACHERS											
	Teachers												Teachers												Teachers											
Student Placement	A				B				C				A				B				C				D				E				F			
	I	II	III	TOTAL	I	II	III	TOTAL	I	II	III	TOTAL	I	II	III	TOTAL	I	II	III	TOTAL	I	II	III	TOTAL	I	II	III	TOTAL	I	II	III	TOTAL	I	II	III	TOTAL
1 (121)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
2 (099)	N	N	N	N	N	Y	N	N	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
3 (099)	N	Y	N	N	Y	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	N	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	N
4 (099)	N	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	N	N	N	N	Y	N	N	N	N	N	Y	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
5 (099)	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
6 (099)	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
7 (099)	N	N	N	N	Y	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	N	N
8 (099)	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
9 (099)	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
10 (099)	N	N	N	N	Y	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
11 (099)	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
12 (099)	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
13 (099)	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
14 (121)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
15 (121)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
16 (121)	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

BOOK REVIEW

ENGLISH IN THE MEDICAL LABORATORY, John Swales and Paul Fanning. Sunbury: Thomas Nelson, 1980. 106 pp: Student's text; also teacher's key.

Review by Diana E. Adams Smith, MSSD, Faculty of Medicine, Kuwait University.

To the best of my knowledge this is the first ESP textbook written specifically for medical technicians and others who work in medical laboratories. Developed from materials originally written for the Institute of Medical Laboratory Technology at the University of Khartoum, it could also be used with medical, nursing, and allied health students of life sciences whose courses involve laboratory training.

The course is pitched at the intermediate level, the principal aim as expressed in the teacher's introduction being to provide access to the English found in instructional medicine. Thus it is designed to help medical students and trainee medical technicians respond effectively to the instructions given in laboratory manuals and similar materials, and also to develop their ability to write answers in English to examinations on medical technology procedures. The writing exercises are graded from simple one-word fill-ins to short controlled paragraphs. Since the writing component arises from diagrams and comprehension passages, many of which require careful study and purposeful close reading, the reading passages comprise a second major part of the book.

As might be reasonably expected in a course based on reading and writing instructions, the directions with very few exceptions are models of clarity and precision, and even the more complicated assignments can be carried out correctly as long as students read carefully and perform tasks in the sequence given. It would therefore even be possible to use the book as a self-study text, provided that someone were available to correct written work and provide guidance if problems arose. The materials are sufficiently flexible to be used in this way with advanced students, while with a

class possessing only rudimentary knowledge of laboratory procedures units can be initially introduced by the teacher and much of the work done orally or as a class exercise on the blackboard, only a selection being assigned for writing at home. It is possible to play the oral element up or down according to class needs and time available.

The authors describe their general approach as one of "modified functionalism." All 8 units of the book arise from the language of instruction. Units 1-3, Introduction to Instructions, Linked Instructions and Instructions and the Passive, establish a broad base of relevant technical and sub-technical vocabulary and concentrate on the instructional verb with its typical functions and forms. Units 4-8 focus on other aspects of instructional English. Unit 4, Making Instructions More Precise, considers instruments, methods and how operations are carriedout, while Unit 5, Operations and Results, emphasises the various uses of active and passive verb forms. Unit 6, Time and Purpose in the Laboratory, is an extension of the work on adverbs in Unit 4; Unit 7, Actions and States, explains the difference between action and state and works through the ways in which states are typically expressed in medical terminology. In Unit 8, Alterations in Clinical Test Procedures, the writing tasks are freer and the readings more advanced. Topics treated include if in sentences concerned with alternative operations and conclusions, should and can, and the language of colours.

At the time of writing of this review English in the Medical Laboratory has not yet been released by the publishers: consequently I am not in a position to discuss the final format. The few typos existing in the galleys which I was allowed to use for a trial run of the materials will probably have been corrected by the time of publication, and the layout in the rough draft is attractive and well-spaced with varied type-faces and plenty of clear artwork.

The book is enjoyable to use because it is never boring, either for class or teacher. Swales and Fanning do not leave

the student half asleep in his chair to parrot the required answer by direct repetition of a sentence from the text; rather, they demonstrate powers of inventiveness unusual in ESP materials writing. Even a passage on the humble Bunsen burner, introducing the concept of linked instructions, requires the student to (1) label a diagram and then draw in some additional apparatus; (2) answer a series of true/false questions, all demanding careful reading and thorough understanding; (3) respond to a series of "what might happen if?" questions; (4) find in the passage a sentence expressing a precaution; (5) find a sentence with more than one imperative verb. Some of the questions are really thought-provoking; e.g. "Place the following in order of increasing dryness: dampened or moistened/dessicated/dry/saturated or soaked/wet." Others require the use of visualisation and logical thinking in establishing the sequence of events.
An example requiring visualisation is the following:

Read the following short description of apparatus which might be found in a medical laboratory, and try to draw a diagram to show its meaning.

A test-tube lies tilted[1] on the bench at an angle of about 20^{o}. It is supported close to its open end by a metal rod about 3 cm. in diameter. The mouth of the tube is plugged with cotton wool. Inside the tube, its surface lying level, is a small amount of solidified fluid.

---

[1] tilted: With one end raised slightly from the horizontal.

1. Dr. Ali H.S. Hajjaj, ELT Inspector General at the English Teaching Inspectorate, Ministry of Education, Kuwait, was recently awarded his doctorate from the University of Lancaster. The title of his thesis is:

"The Nature and Understanding of the Term 'Function' and its Application to English for Special Purposes with reference to Physics Texts used in Kuwait University".

An abstract follows:

The thesis attempts to investigate the nature of the term 'function' with the aim of applying the findings to the teaching and learning of English for Special Purposes (ESP). Chapter One is concerned with an introductory discussion of the term, and Chapter Two examines how it has been treated in a variety of theoretical studies: philosophical, discoursal, ethnographic, sociolinguistic, psycholinguistic, and linguistic. In the latter case, the main emphasis is on inter-sentential relations, rather than on sentences as discrete units. This examination results in suggesting a set of 'needs-to-know ' which should be taken into account when defining what we mean by 'function' of language and its understanding in communication.

In Chapter Three, I take the 'needs-to-know' as criteria for evaluating what I call 'Functional Interpretation Models' in which 'function' is examined from different angles: sequencing, categorizing, and role. The evaluation of these models leads to the identification of 'etic', or general functions, and 'emic' or specific functions, as well as the differentiation between 'rhetorical' and 'organizational' functions.

Chapter Four is concerned with a critical review of some well-known ESP pedagogical research and classroom application. This review confirms the above findings; in particular, the importance of taking a

wide perspective if the definition of the nature of 'function' is to be of a particular value in language teaching and learning. The ESP review, further, emphasizes the need for taking 'authentic' data not only for the preparation of functional models but also for their application to teaching and learning.

The insights gained from the theoretical studies, functional interpretation models, pedagogical research, and classroom application guide the 'functional' analysis conducted on physics texts in Chapter Five. The analysis leads to the formulation of a tentative model of the functions of language, as realized in the physics texts. The model is a 'pragmatic' one; that is, it is concerned with the interpretation of discourse in such a way that the 'prominent' functions are identified, and their inter-relationships are made explicit.

In Chapter Six, I attempt to suggest how the model can be applied to the teaching and learning of reading comprehension in an ESP situation. The situation considered is that of Kuwait University students who intend to read physics through the medium of English. In this chapter, I also give suggestions for the selection and grading of the reading comprehension materials to be used.

Chapter Seven sums up the main decisions, criteria, and conclusions of the thesis. It also gives some of what I think to be its main limitations.

2. The British Council has planned 12 Summer Schools in Britain for July and August 1980. The courses vary in level and content, from those designed for the more advanced teachers, whose chief interests may be linguistics or methodology, to those more suitable for teachers whose main concern is the improvement of their own spoken English.

English for Specific Purposes is dealt with on the course at the University of Aston in Birmingham, where an attempt will be made to cater for individual course members' special ESP interests.

A booklet describing all 12 courses is available from the local British Council representation.

3. TESOL CONVENTION PREPARATIONS

The Teaching English Abroad/Special Interest Group (TEA/SIG) of TESOL, in preparing for the March, 1980 TESOL Convention in San Francisco, seeks information from researchers and teachers outside the United States. Researchers overseas are asked to submit abstracts of their research to TEA/SIG even if they do not plan to attend the convention. Teachers overseas needing ideas to improve their teaching in difficult circumstances may submit to TEA/SIG their pedagogical problems with a description of their teaching situation (materials used; number, level, and age of students, type and purpose of instruction, etc.) Correspondence should be addressed to Dr. Lin Lougheed, Education Development Center, 55 Chapel Street, Newton, Massachusetts, 02160 U.S.A.

4. RELC REGIONAL SEMINAR ON EVALUATION AND MEASUREMENT OF LANGUAGE COMPETENCE AND PERFORMANCE.
SINGAPORE 21 - 25 APRIL 1980

THE SOUTHEAST ASIAN MINISTERS OF EDUCATION ORGANIZATION (SEAMEO) REGIONAL LANGUAGE CENTRE (RELC) WILL HOLD ITS 15TH REGIONAL SEMINAR, 21-25 APRIL 1980, IN SINGAPORE. THE THEME OF THE SEMINAR IS "EVALUATION AND MEASUREMENT OF LANGUAGE COMPETENCE AND PERFORMANCE".

THE OBJECTIVES OF THE SEMINAR ARE:

TO REVIEW CURRENT METHODS OF TESTING LANGUAGE COMPETENCE AND PERFORMANCE;

TO CONSIDER RESEARCH IN THE FIELD OF LANGUAGE TESTING AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO LANGUAGE TEACHING;

TO DISCUSS THE PROBLEMS OF LANGUAGE TESTING IN THE MULTI-LINGUAL AND MULTI-CULTURAL SOCIETIES OF SOUTHEAST ASIA;

TO STIMULATE INTEREST AND RESEARCH IN THE FIELD OF LANGUAGE TESTING IN THE REGION.

ABSTRACTS ARE INVITED ON TOPICS RELEVANT TO THE THEME OF THE SEMINAR. FURTHER INFORMATION AND INVITATIONS TO PARTICIPATE IN THE SEMINAR CAN BE OBTAINED FROM THE FOLLOWING ADDRESS:

DIRECTOR
(ATTENTION: CHAIRMAN
SEMINAR PLANNING COMMITTEE)
SEAMEO REGIONAL LANGUAGE CENTRE
RELC BUILDING
30 ORANGE GROVE ROAD
SINGAPORE
REPUBLIC OF SINGAPORE

5. NEW COURSE AT THE UNIVERSITY OF BIRMINGHAM.

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M.A. in Applied English Linguistics
(with particular reference to English
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Applications are invited from experienced teachers of EFL for admission to a new two-year sandwich course, combining work in post with one term's intensive study on the Birmingham campus each year.

Application forms and details from the Registry, Faculty of Arts, University of Birmingham, PO Box 363, Edgbaston, Birmingham B15 2TT, England. Further details from Chris Kennedy (ext. 2033) or Richard Mead (ext. 3646), English Language Research, University of Birmingham 021-472-1301.

6. EST/ESP CHILE NEWSLETTER is a joint publication prepared under rotating editorship by different universities in the country interested in the development and promotion of EST/ESP. It appears twice a year in May and November. It gives information about courses, seminars, meetings, etc. which have recently taken place in the country or are planned for the near future and contains articles and news items about research, methods and materials of interest to practising teachers and programme administrators in EST/ESP. In addition, special numbers are issued from time to time: these contain articles of considerably greater length and scope than those published in the regular newsletter.

The Newsletter is distributed free to institutions and persons engaged in teaching EST/ESP. Representatives of such institutions wishing to receive the Newsletter should

write to the Secretary giving some idea of their institution's involvement in ESP and the size of the staff employed in such activities. Those wishing to receive the newsletter by airmail should pay U.S.$4.00 per year. Unfortunately, copies of earlier issues are no longer available. Further information from:

Odette Boys Secretary EST/ESP Chile Newsletter
Casilla 16095 Santiago 9 Chile.

7. THE LEXDEN PAPERS is a collection of essays on Teaching English for Specific Purposes, produced by the teaching staff of the Colchester English Study Centre to celebrate its 10th Anniversary.
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